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Research Programme

Innovative research in employment

**NON-STANDARD WORK
AND YOUNG(ER) WORKERS**

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1. INTRODUCTION

The growth in non-standard work has been a major component of labour market changes in all industrialised societies over the last two decades (Mangan, 2000; VandenHeuvel and Wooden, 2000). Driven by notions of economic liberalisation in an environment changed forever by the rapid development and harnessing of new technology, labour markets of the 1980s and early 1990s were characterised by privatisation, rationalisation, downsizing, mergers and alliances and a reworking of the nature of industrial relations (Burke and Cooper, 2002). As a consequence, new occupations emerged and often existing occupations were restructured or required new or different skills. In their attempts to remain viable and competitive, employers responded to such changes by embracing ideas around labour market flexibility, especially numerical flexibility. This has allowed employers to adapt forms of non-standard work to respond to changes in the level and pattern of demand (de Bruin, Dupuis and Spoonley, 2004: 1).

The term non-standard work has been the cause of much debate in the literature and has proved particularly slippery to define. However, the term itself implies a deviation from the standard model in which an employee works full-time hours over a regular working week for one employer, has access to non-wage benefits and is located in a specific place which is usually the premises of the employer and there is an expectation of ongoing employment (Burgess and Watts, 1999). Deviations can take the form of no employee rights or protection, no full-time income or guaranteed minimum income, no regular, predictable income, no regular, predictable working hours and no minimum non-wage benefits. Forms of non-standard work include self-employment, part-time, fixed-term, temporary and casual work, the reliance on intermediaries such as temporary work agencies for employment and multiple job holding.¹

A similar debate has occurred around the extent to which non-standard work has become an increasingly important feature of contemporary labour markets, particularly in the service sector. For example, Tritt (2000) estimated that about 25 percent of jobs were in non-traditional areas while Spoonley (2004: 3) suggested that the standard work model of the post WWII period was exceptional and that non-standard work will increasingly come to dominate in service economies. The issues around definitions of what constitutes non-standard work, the form and nature of non-standard work relationships and the extent to which non-standard work is growing in importance, are not only intellectually and analytically provocative, but also have real consequences. The effects of adequate definitions of non-standard work, or the omission of forms of non-standard work from consideration when gathering official statistics are profound, not only for workers themselves but also for those involved in such areas as industrial tribunals, courts and policy making. Much of the literature on non-standard work refers to the need for improved data collection (for example Carroll, 1999; Firkin et al., 2002; Tucker, 2002). Poor national statistics mean that important international comparisons suffer. A recent OECD publication analyses the trends in the level of temporary employment in OECD countries However, New Zealand is omitted from the comparison due to the lack of statistics (OECD, 2002).

¹ For more in-depth analyses of issues of non-standard work, see previous LMD research reports on <http://lmd.massey.ac.nz/publications.htm>

The lack of robust New Zealand statistics also makes the analysis of non-standard work within New Zealand highly problematic. For example, a lack of knowledge of the incidence of temporary employment arrangements makes it difficult to determine the extent to which the secondary or peripheral labour market is growing and becoming an integral part of employment locally. Furthermore, information is required on the extent to which workers choose these employment arrangements as opposed to entering into them in an involuntarily or forced way as the least preferred employment option. With such gaps in the New Zealand data, it is difficult to know whether the decline in unemployment over recent years is actually masked by growing under-employment, especially in terms of temporary arrangements. Such questions cannot be answered unless more is known about aggregate numbers and the characteristics of non-standard workers in New Zealand.²

The focus of this report is non-standard work and young(er) people in New Zealand i.e. those between the ages of 15-34, an age range which extends the usual emphasis on youth workers. As such the data referred to in the report connects with a growing body of international research on younger workers and non-standard work. In Canada, Lowe (2001) reports that the standard job is now less common amongst youth than any other age cohort (although British literature points out that it is also becoming less common for older workers; see Felstead et al., 1997). Australia reflects a similar trend, with the youth labour market increasingly characterised by casualisation (Riele, 2004; Tresize-Brown, 2005; Kellock, 2005). While Spoonley and McLaren's (2003) study of the New Zealand labour market perhaps places more emphasis on the overrepresentation of women, ethnic minorities and immigrants in non-standard work, they do note that with regard to age cohorts in Australia that the highest growth (44.5 percent) of casual workers was in the 15-24 age group. A possible interpretation of these studies is that it is the most vulnerable workers who are required to undertake the most insecure work. Indeed, while the trend towards flexible forms of work is often associated with the rhetoric of increased freedom and greater work-life balance, Dupuis, Inkson and McLaren (2005) found that the preference amongst 97 percent of the full-time workers in their sample of younger workers was still for permanent, full-time work. Likewise, Lowe (2001) reported that although an upsurge in young, Canadian self-employed workers might be interpreted as a rise in entrepreneurialism, for some, self-employment represented a labour market adaptation rather than a destination of choice. It is also worth pointing out that the ability of workers to succeed in the world of flexible work might rely on them possessing a particular set of personal, educational and work related aptitudes. As Worth (2003) notes, the ethic of adaptability and self-management promoted by flexible work practices most negatively affects the young unemployed who have limited formal skills and work-related attitudes deemed 'inappropriate' by employers.

This research report aims at contributing to the knowledge of non-standard work in New Zealand in two ways. Firstly, it provides some data on trends in the incidence of

² While no information is gathered for some forms of non-standard work, limited information is available for other forms. For example, there is limited New Zealand statistical information available on multiple job holding, although case study material on multiple job holding provides valuable insights into the extent to which this form of working has become an important part of the New Zealand labour market (Taylor et al., 2004).

non-standard work generally in New Zealand over the past two decades. Secondly, it draws on data from the FRST-funded research programme ‘Pathways to Sustainable Employment’ (PASE) to report on aspects of non-standard work in New Zealand of a sample of 15-34 year old New Zealanders who have part-time, temporary or multiple jobs. The report concludes that non-standard work is viewed positively by most of the non-standard workers in the sample. As such, it provides a challenge to the literature that equates non-standard work with marginality and precariousness. It also points to the need to recognise the major changes that have taken place in New Zealand’s labour market and in New Zealand society over the last few decades and the extent to which younger people negotiating these changes are no longer constrained by the past expectations of linearity.

2. THE NEW ZEALAND SITUATION

As noted in the Introduction to this report, labour market statistics in New Zealand do not adequately portray the changing dynamics of the labour market with respect to non-standard work. While some statistical information is collected by Statistics New Zealand on non-standard work (self-employment, part-time employment, multiple job-holding), details on the incidence of temporary employment, like casual, fixed-term and contract work, are not available. In order to provide a quantitative measure of non-standard work, it is necessary that such data is generated.

In an attempt to approximate such a measure, Newell (Monitoring, Evaluation, Research and Associates (MERA), 2003) has identified surrogate measures to compensate for the gaps in the official statistics. Of the four potential data sets that provide these employment statistics³, the most feasible to use for developing a measure of non-standard work was the New Zealand Census of population and dwellings which provides information on:

- the number of employees;
- whether an individual is employed for wages and salaries; and
- hours worked for the main and all jobs.

The Census does not, however, provide any information on the projected duration of the employment relationship which determines whether employment is permanent or temporary.

The first two criteria for separating standard from non-standard work mentioned above are clear. It is the third point on hours worked where a decision had to be made on what degree of divergence from the 'normal' 40 hour week would distinguish non-standard from standard work. This is an arbitrary decision so for analytical purposes Newell assumed a deviation of 10 or more hours per week from the 40 hour norm.

The basic characterisation of work categories thus used in this analysis are as follows:

- **standard work:** employed on a wage or salary for between 30 and 50 hours and not a multiple job holder
- **non-standard work:**
 - employed part-time on a wage or salary and a multiple job holder;
 - employed part-time on a wage or salary and not a multiple job holder;
 - employed on a wage or salary for between 30 and 50 hours and a multiple job holder;
 - part-time / full time and multiple job holder / non multiple job holderbreakdowns of each of the categories below:
 - self employed with employees;
 - self employed without employees; or
 - unpaid worker in a family business.

³ Quarterly Household Labour Force Survey; five yearly Census of Population and Dwellings; records kept by the State Services Commission on employees in the New Zealand Public service and one-off or custom surveys.

- *unemployed*
- *not in the labour force*

Employment Trends 1981-2001

This section draws on McPherson's (2006) interpretation of Newell's (2003) analysis of Statistics New Zealand Census data on employment from the five Census periods, 1981, 1986, 1991, 1996 and 2001 and draws attention to trends and issues around non-standard work in New Zealand.

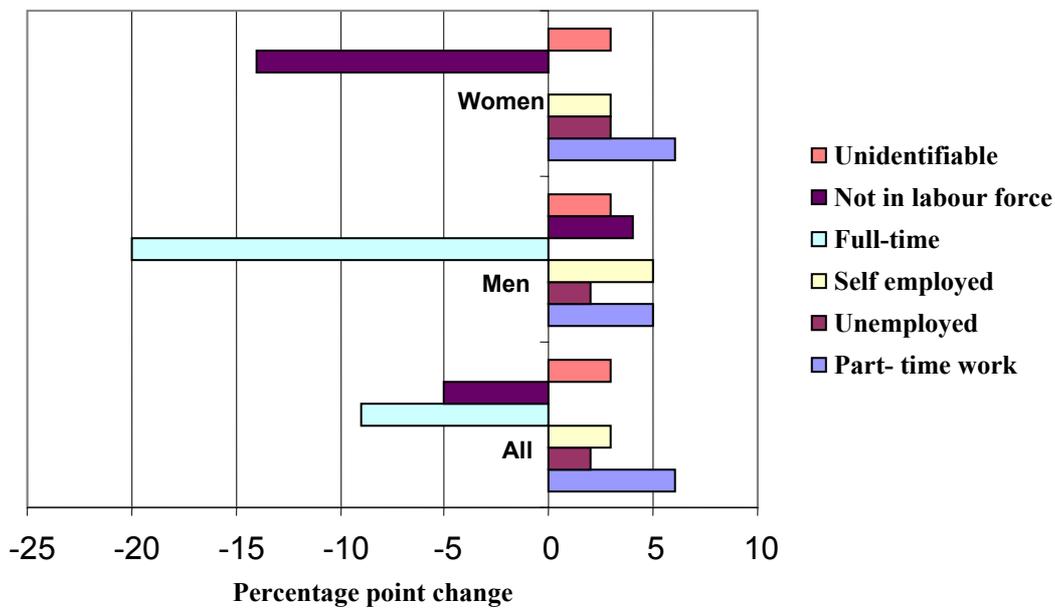
Figure 1 provides a broad analysis of employment statistics that demonstrate change in labour force status over a 20 year period from 1981 to 2001. The dataset from which this figure was compiled combines standard employment and labour force categories for the whole population aged 15 years and over and therefore also includes those not in the labour force. A number of distinctive trends are observable in Figure 1. For all workers, there has been a decline in the relative percentage of full-time wage and salary earners, from 44 percent of those in the labour force in 1981 to 35 percent in 2001. At the same time, there has been an overall decline in the proportion of the working age population not in the labour force, from 37 percent to 32 percent. This raises the question of which Census employment status categories have changed as a consequence. In other words, where have these people gone? Figure 1 shows that from 1981 to 2001, for all labour force participants, there has been an increase in part-time work by 6 percentage points and in the unemployed category by 2 percentage points. There is also an increase of 3 percentage points in the self-employed and unidentifiable work categories. It is likely that the increase in unidentifiable work indicates that the complexities of employment statuses (especially with respect to non-standard work) are such that the traditional categories used by Statistics New Zealand to define employment status are no longer adequate.

Figure 1 also makes clear the major gender differences in changing labour force participation patterns from 1981-2001. The 20 percentage point decline shown in men's full-time employment again raises the question of where have these men gone? As the data indicate, men have moved from full-time employment to self-employment (a 5 percentage points increase), from full-time to part-time employment (a 5 percentage points increase), out of labour force participation altogether (a 4 percentage points decline), into unemployment (an increase of 2 percentage points), or to other forms of employment as indicated by the 3 percentage points increase in the category unidentifiable employment.

Patterns for women, on the other hand, are quite different. Between 1981 and 2001, women's labour force participation has increased from 47 percent to 61 percent. However, this move is not into full-time wage and salaried work, but into part-time work (an increase of 6 percentage points), and into self-employment, unemployment and into the unidentifiable category of work (an increase of 3 percentage points each). In sum therefore, the overall increase in labour force participation over this period is due to women entering the labour force, mainly into part-time work, as well as self-employment and unidentifiable employment. The decline in full-time work is due to

men shifting into part-time work, self-employment and unidentifiable work. For the latter two categories, it is likely that some of this work will also be part-time.

Figure 1: Employment Trends, All, by Gender, 1981-2001



Non-standard Work 1986-2001

The statistics on non-standard work discussed in the remaining part of this section of the report are derived from differently configured data from those used in Figure 1 and include only those people in the labour force. Data is presented from four Censuses; 1986, 1991, 1996 and 2001. Again Newell and McPherson’s work form the basis for this discussion and the assumptions set out earlier also apply here. Thus non-standard work is defined as anything other than working 30-50 hours per week in a single job for wages or salary (although we do not know whether these jobs are permanent or temporary).

The trends in non-standard work over the fifteen year period from 1986 to 2001 show that the growth in this form of work happened mainly between 1991 and 1996 (see Figure 2). This is likely to reflect the significant economic restructuring that took place in the early part of the 1990s in both the public and private sectors (see, for example, Kelsey 1993, 1997). Figure 2 also shows that a levelling off in non-standard work occurring between 1996 and 2001.

Figure 3 provides a snapshot of the incidence of non-standard work by age in 2001. It can be seen that the highest incidences of non-standard work occur in the youngest and oldest age cohorts. As might be expected given their primary location in educational institutions, over 90 percent of the 15 and 16 year olds in employment are

in non-standard work. This rate falls rapidly however, for 17-19 year olds, 63 percent of whom are in non-standard work. The relatively high incidence of non-standard work among the 65+ age cohort (at 85 percent) can be explained by the fact that there is no longer a mandatory retirement age in New Zealand and that access to a state pension could shape preferences for part-time over full-time employment. The lowest incidences of non-standard work are in the respective cohorts in the 20-34 age groups. This is likely to reflect both the greater prevalence of full-time work for women and men in these age cohorts and the proportion of women who are not in part-time or other forms of non-standard work because of their child caring and family responsibilities.

Figure 4 again takes a longer-term view and sets out the overall incidence of non-standard work for all age cohorts from the years 1986 to 2001. The general pattern is similar to that of 2001, demonstrated in Figure 3, with the prevalence of non-standard work highest in the youngest and oldest age cohorts. In addition, there is a remarkably similar pattern of growth and stabilisation within non-standard work within each age cohort, where generally the data show an increase in the incidence of non-standard work between the years 1986 to 1991 and again from 1991 to 1996, with a decline from 1996 to 2001. However, exceptions to the general pattern occur too. Between 1986 and 1991, there was a slight decline in the incidence of non-standard work for the 23 to 29 age group and for the 30-34 age group, there was little change. For all age cohorts, the incidence of non-standard work increased between 1991 and 1996 to varying degrees, but more obviously in the youngest age cohorts. From 1996 to 2001, it eased back somewhat, with the exception of the 55-59 age group where there was no change, and the 17-19 age group where it increased a little. Unfortunately, we do not know whether the employment considered in Figures 2 to 4 was permanent or temporary.

Figure 2: Trends in Non-standard Work, 1986-2001

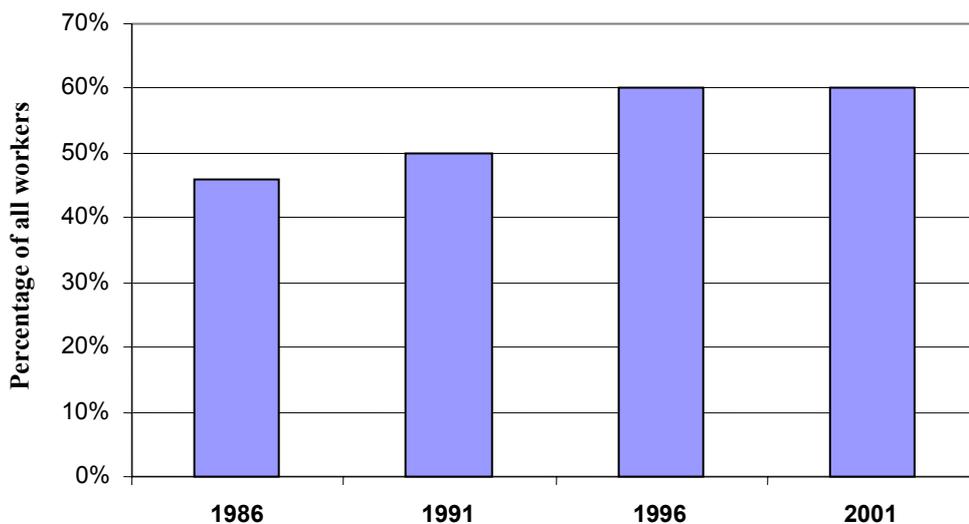


Figure 3: Non-standard Work, by Age, 2001

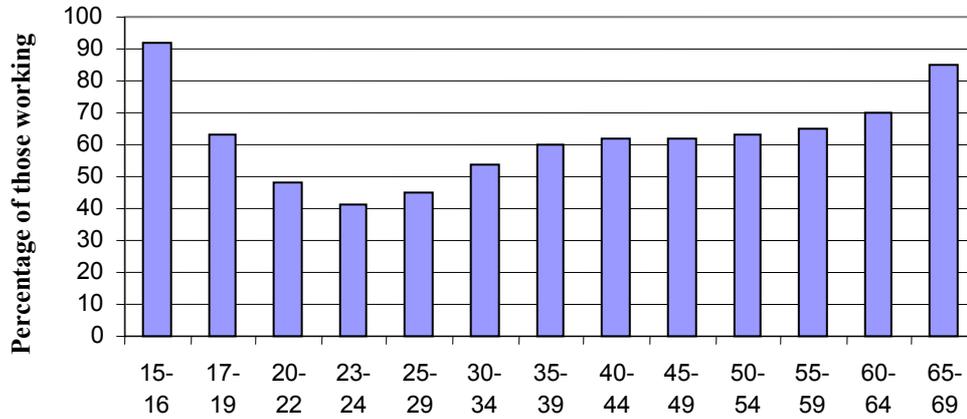
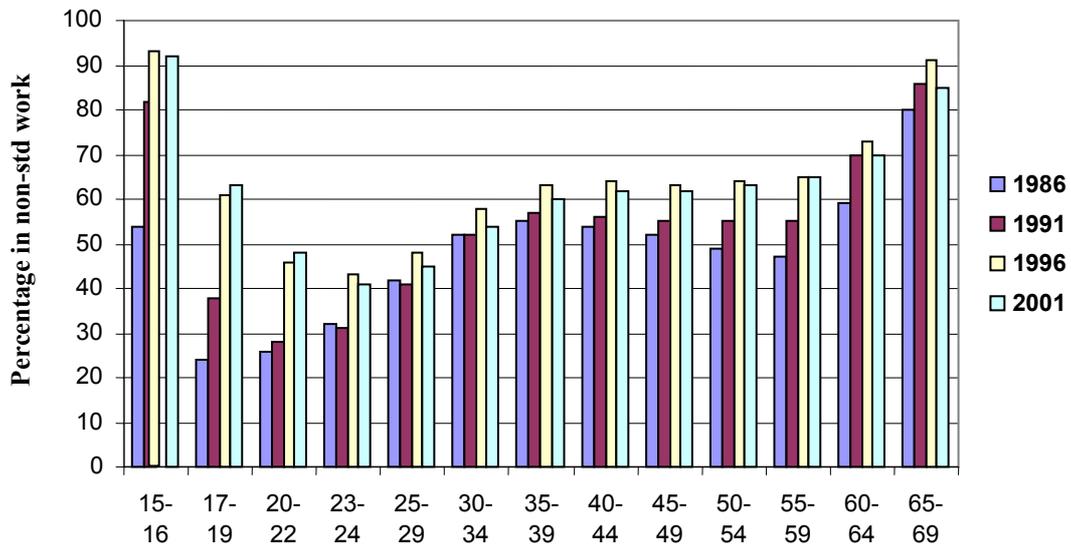


Figure 4: Trends in Non-standard Work, by Age, 1986-2001



3. THE PATHWAYS TO SUSTAINABLE EMPLOYMENT RESEARCH PROGRAMME

The 'Pathways to Sustainable Employment' (PASE) project is a five year, FRST funded project which examines the impact of and implications for the increasing variability of employment pathways on workers and employers. Here we follow the Ministry of Social Development's (2004) definition of sustainable employment as appropriate employment options for individuals and households which at the same time ensure adequate labour supply for employers and maintain human capital and social cohesion for New Zealand as a whole.

The overarching aims of the PASE project are to: explore the various ways in which 15-34 year olds understand pathways into employment and negotiate their own employment pathways; provide the research information through which tangible, relevant and user-oriented initiatives are generated both for the communities concerned and those agencies that have a policy responsibility in the area of employment; provide information on best strategies for achieving the economic goals of sustainable employment for younger people, through the meaningful participation in paid work leading to independent adulthood; and establish the extent to which there is an alignment between labour supply and demand, in relation to people within the chosen age cohorts.

The project has two major components. Objective 1 investigates supply-side employment issues, in particular the way in which younger people (15-34 year olds) understand and negotiate access to employment. Objective 2 has a demand-side focus concentrating on the strategies and expectations of employers in organising labour supply (de Bruin, McLaren and Spoonley, 2005). The data reported on here is derived from the first survey undertaken for Objective 1 (Dupuis, Inkson and McLaren, 2004). The purpose of this survey was to gather base-line employment and other data from 966 participants aged between 15 and 34 years domiciled in four regional areas in New Zealand.

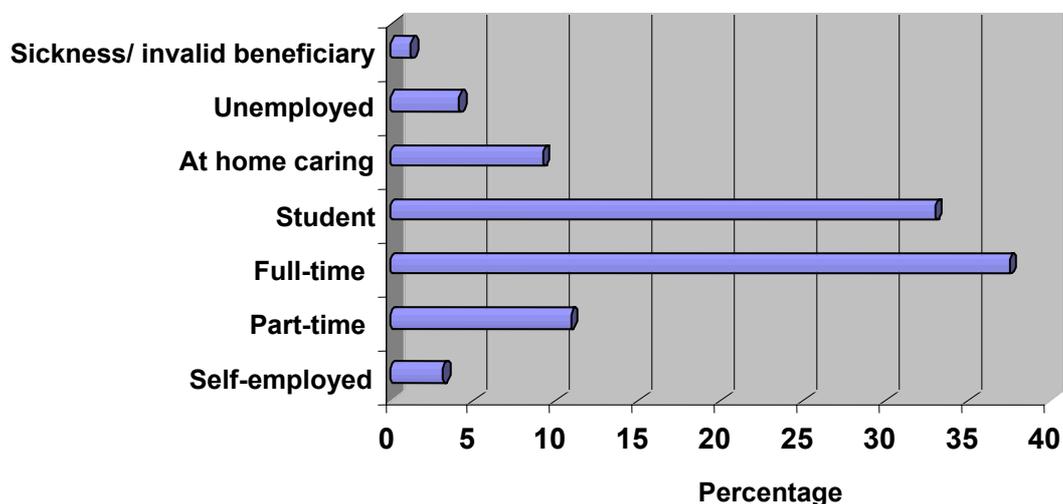
Methodology

Data for the first survey of 966 participants was collected using two different approaches. First, a Computer Aided Telephone Interview (CATI) survey of a stratified sample of 866 people aged from 15-34 years was conducted by a professional Auckland-based research company. Prospective participants were initially contacted by random digit dialling in four selected geographical areas of New Zealand - Manawatu-Whanganui, Gisborne-East Coast, Auckland and Wellington - and those meeting the study parameters were invited to participate. All interviews were completed in June and July 2004. Conducted separately, and using the same interview schedule and regions, was a complementary piece of research, in which a further 100 Maori participants were surveyed. The sample chosen for the specific Maori component of this part of the research was drawn from an existing longitudinal study of Maori household, 'The Best Outcomes for Maori: Te Hoe Nuku Roa', being undertaken by the School of Maori Studies at Massey University, which involves a representative stratified random sample of 650 Maori households. Initial contact and

the subsequent interviews were conducted by trained Maori telephone interviewers. The results of these two surveys were collated and for the purposes of this report have been analysed as one sample.

The questionnaire generated for this part of the research project provides answers for up to 130 questions, many of which include multiple pieces of information and some being open-ended. It is, therefore, a large and complex database. While the major focus was on ‘pathways into employment’, the specific sets of questions asked of each participant depended on their employment status (the status participants considered their ‘main activity’), that is, whether the participant was primarily a student, employed part-time or full-time, self-employed, unemployed, at home caring for children and so on. The breakdown of proportions of the 966 participants in each ‘main activity’ is set out in Figure 5. For each participant currently in paid work, a wide range of information was obtained about their present (and past) main employment. For participants who had ever been employed but were not currently employed, information was gathered about their first and last jobs where applicable. The usual range of demographic questions was also asked. The current phase of Objective 1 comprises a qualitative follow-up phase in which approximately ten percent of the CATI sample participated in face to face interviews.

Figure 5: Main Activity of Participants in the PASE Sample

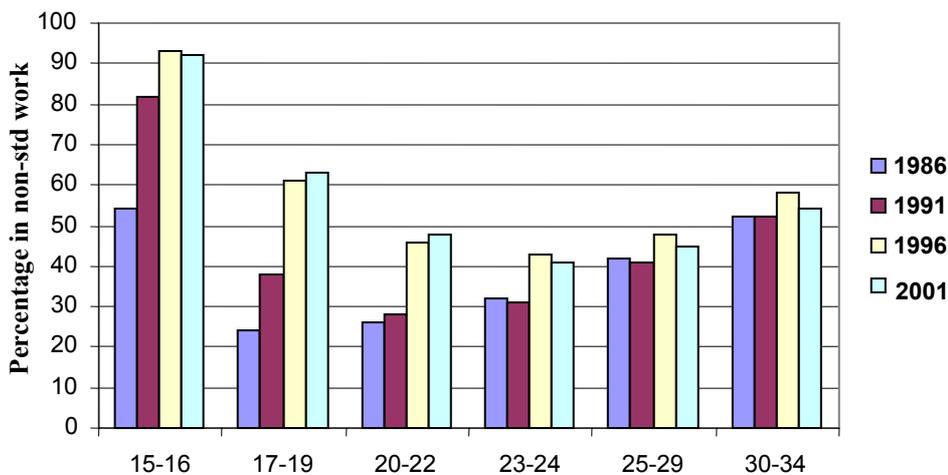


4. YOUNGER PEOPLE AND NON-STANDARD WORK IN NEW ZEALAND

Before examining some of the PASE data, it is in order to point out the general trends observable in Statistics New Zealand data for the age cohorts of the PASE sample. Given the likelihood of very different employment patterns and experiences across the broad age span of 15-34, the PASE sample was further broken down into four age cohorts: 15-19 years, 20-24 years, 25-29 years, 30-34 years. Accordingly, the Statistics New Zealand data were treated similarly, hence the choice of age cohorts set out in Figure 6.

Figure 6 shows trends in non-standard work for age cohorts from 15-34 over the period 1986 to 2001. It is clear that the relative growth in non-standard work is most apparent in the 15-19 year old cohorts, and especially so for 15 and 16 year olds. Over the 1986 to 2001 period, this could be explained by an increasing proportion of young people moving on to tertiary education after leaving high school, and with the demands of both study and the need to support themselves, thereby entering the work force on a part-time, temporary or casual basis, rather than in a full-time, permanent capacity. The greater preponderance of non-standard work in the youngest age cohorts could also reflect the fact that young people are staying on longer at school (especially since 1993 when the school leaving age was raised from 15 to 16). While all age cohorts show an increase in non-standard work from 1991 to 1996, for those between the ages of 23 and 34, the proportion of non-standard workers drops back in 2001. These older age cohorts also show much less variation in the percentage of workers in non-standard work over the 15 year period.

Figure 6: Trends in Non-standard Work, Ages 15-34, 1986-2001



In the next section of the report, we interrogate some of the PASE data with respect to non-standard work, examining the characteristics and experiences of the young workers in our sample who are engaged in part-time and temporary work, and multiple jobs. Before doing so, however, we need to describe briefly the current state of the New Zealand labour market.

In recent times, New Zealand has experienced a very buoyant labour market. The official unemployment rate in the September quarter 2005 was 3.4 percent, the lowest rate in the developed world and the lowest in New Zealand for 20 years. For 15-34 year olds, the unemployment rate was 5.9 percent broken down as follows: 15-19 year olds, 12.4 percent; 20-24 year olds, 5 percent; 25-29 year olds, 4 percent and 30-34 year olds, 2.5 percent (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). While the recent trend of deepening skill shortages appears to have abated somewhat, with skill shortage indicators falling in the June 2005 quarter from 30 year highs, there are nevertheless, well documented skill shortages in the New Zealand labour market. The Department of Labour's September 2005 report on skills in the labour market shows that 45 percent of firms surveyed in the Qualitative Survey of Business Opinion had difficulty finding skilled staff (down from 60 percent in March 2005) and 26 percent of firms had difficulty finding unskilled labour (down from 49 percent in March 2005). Additionally, a shortage of labour was the main constraint for 24 percent of firms. While this figure had fallen slightly from the 26 percent recorded in the previous quarter, it was still the third highest figure since 1975 and much higher than the 10 year average of 9 percent (Department of Labour, 2005).

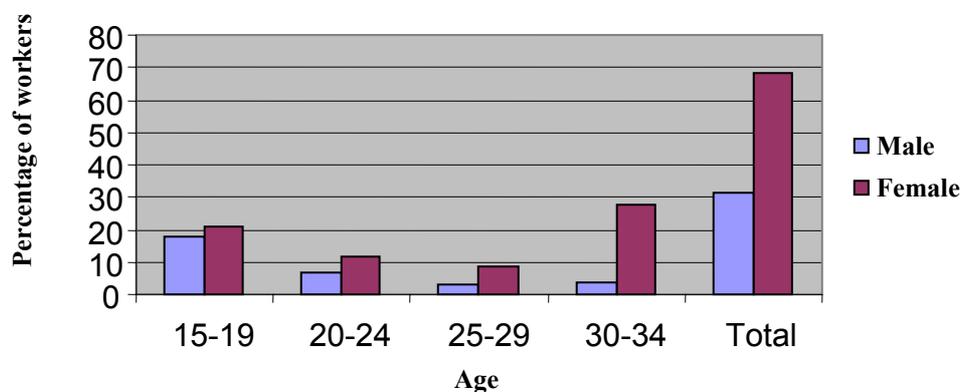
5. PART-TIME WORK: THE PASE SAMPLE

This section of the report describes the data for the group of participants who considered part-time work their ‘main activity’ (refer back to Figure 5). The PASE research also gathered data on other participants in part-time work. However, the data for these participants are not included in this discussion given that they fit much more into the ‘traditional’ notion of part-time work, where this work is entered into as an addition to some other perceived primary status, such as student or mother/caregiver. As noted previously, in the PASE research, this distinction was allowed for in that each participant decided on their own main activity.

Nearly 11 percent of the full sample of 966 participants reported their main activity as part-time employment. In keeping with the broader New Zealand data on part-time work which shows a preponderance of females in this category, more than two-thirds of the 105 respondents in the sub-sample were female (i.e. 72 participants or 68.6 percent), while 33 were male (31.4 percent). These data are shown in Figure 7. While this may appear to be an overwhelming proportion of females in part-time work, it should be kept in mind that the sample was initially biased towards females, with a 58 percent / 42 percent split favouring females. Nevertheless, in keeping with the New Zealand wide data, these figures show the greater tendency for females rather than males to be in part-time employment.

In terms of age cohorts, Figure 7 indicates that 41 participants or 39.1 percent were in the 15-19 age group, 19 (18.1 percent) were aged between 20-24, 12 (11.4 percent) were aged between 25-29 and 33 (31.4 percent) between 30-34. The youngest and oldest cohorts therefore make up over 70 percent of those who reported their main activity as part-time work.

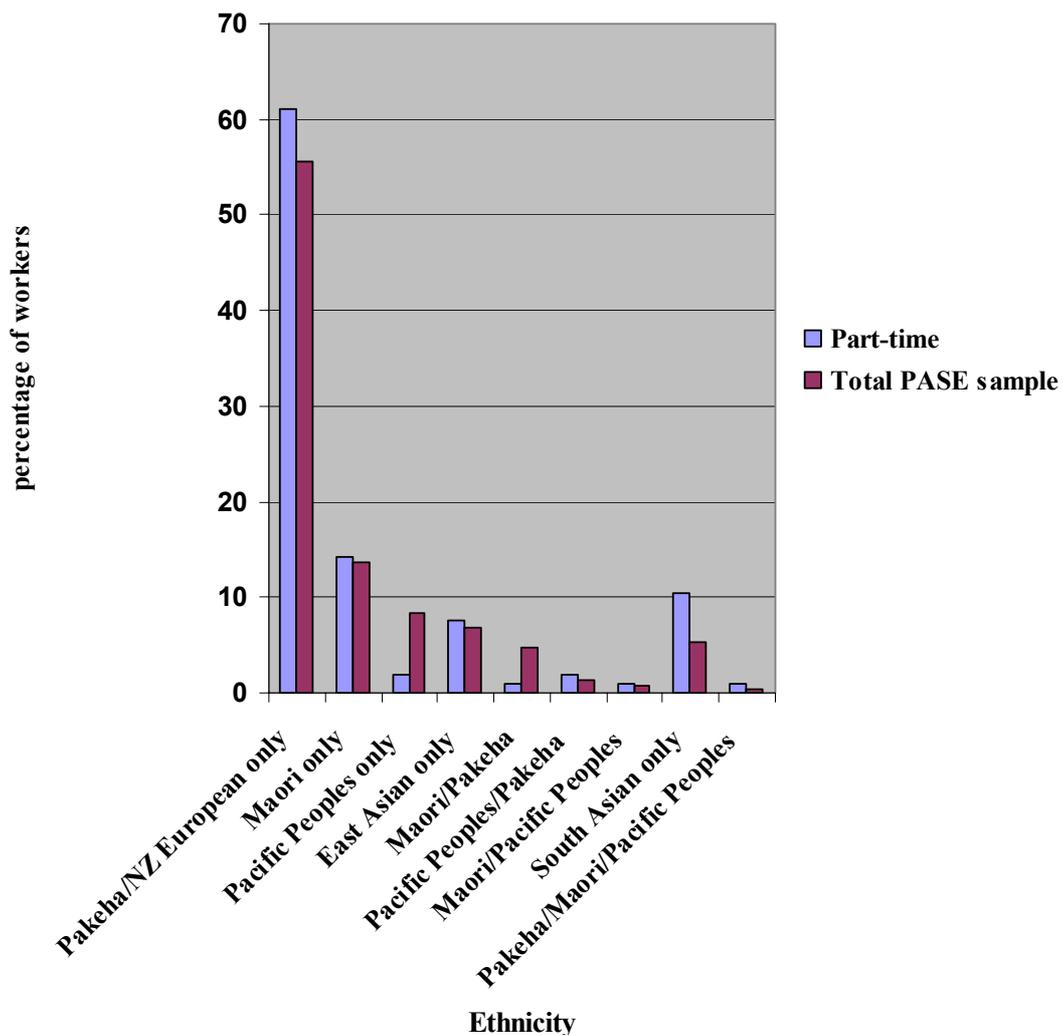
Figure 7: Part-time Employment by Age and Gender



An interesting aspect of the age/gender data is that the single largest group of part-time workers was women in the 30-34 age group. As might be expected, 24 of the 29 women in this group had a child or children, although only 18 reported being either legally married or living with a partner. Equally interesting is the fact that nearly 80 percent of this group were in permanent part-time employment. Three were multiple job holders and worked more than 30 hours a week in all their jobs. The degree of satisfaction with their work and sense of security was also relatively high. Only two participants voiced dissatisfaction with their jobs and nearly 90 percent said their jobs were either very or fairly secure. Similarly, nearly 90 percent said they would still be in paid employment in two years time and nearly two-thirds thought they would be undertaking some form of study.

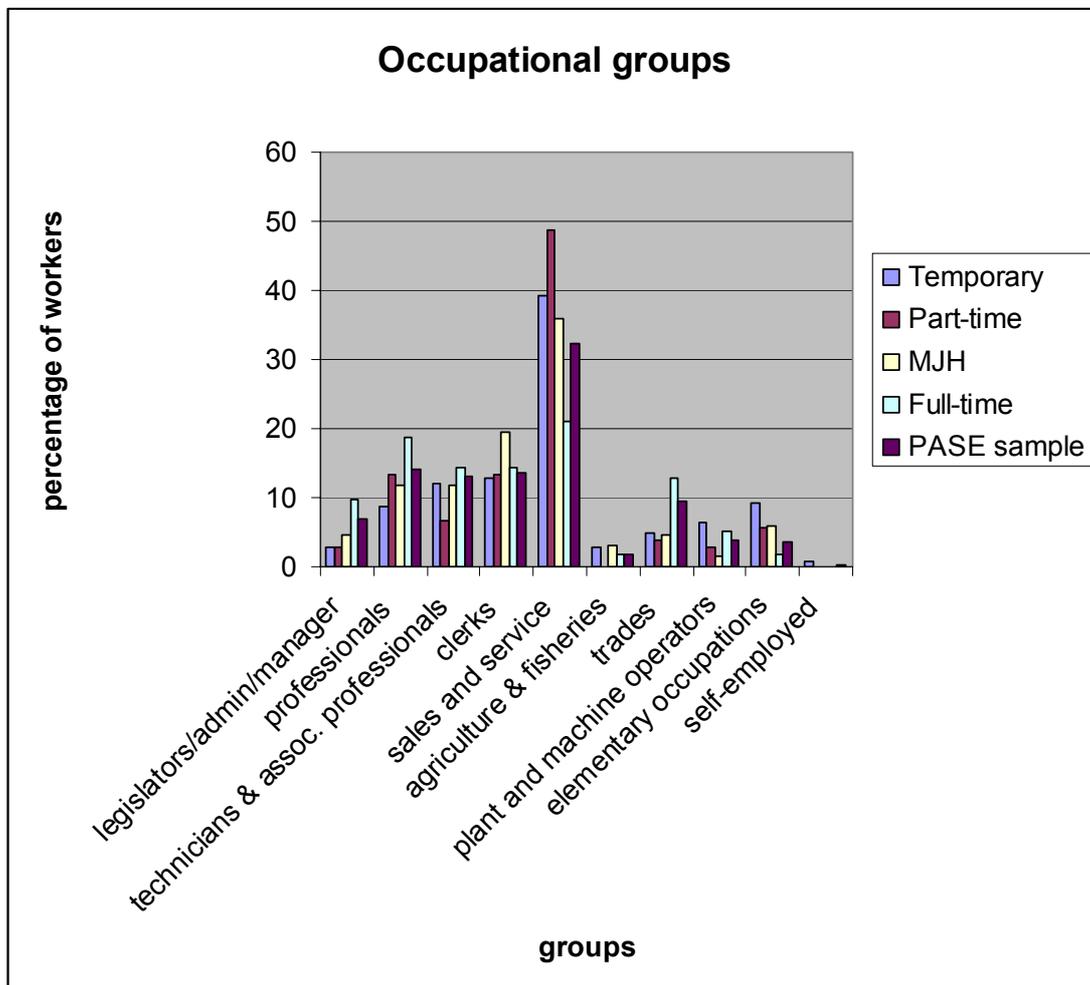
Figure 8 shows the ethnic breakdown for part-time workers in the PASE sample and for the sample overall. The data show that while there is a greater percentage of Pakeha and South Asians in part-time employment than might be expected, there is a lower incidence of Pacific peoples.

Figure 8: Part-time Workers by Ethnicity



The occupational groups for those reporting part-time work as their main activity are set out in Figure 9. Just over three-quarters of these part-time workers were in the three categories of sales and service, professionals, and clerks, with nearly half in sales and service. The single most commonly reported individual occupation in sales and service was salesperson/ demonstrator, which was the current occupation of 28 participants, or 27 percent of these part-time workers, while a further 13 (12 percent) were employed in housekeeping or restaurant services. Just over one-quarter were either professionals or clerks. While obviously males also work in these occupational groups, they are nevertheless occupations which are significantly gender biased towards females.

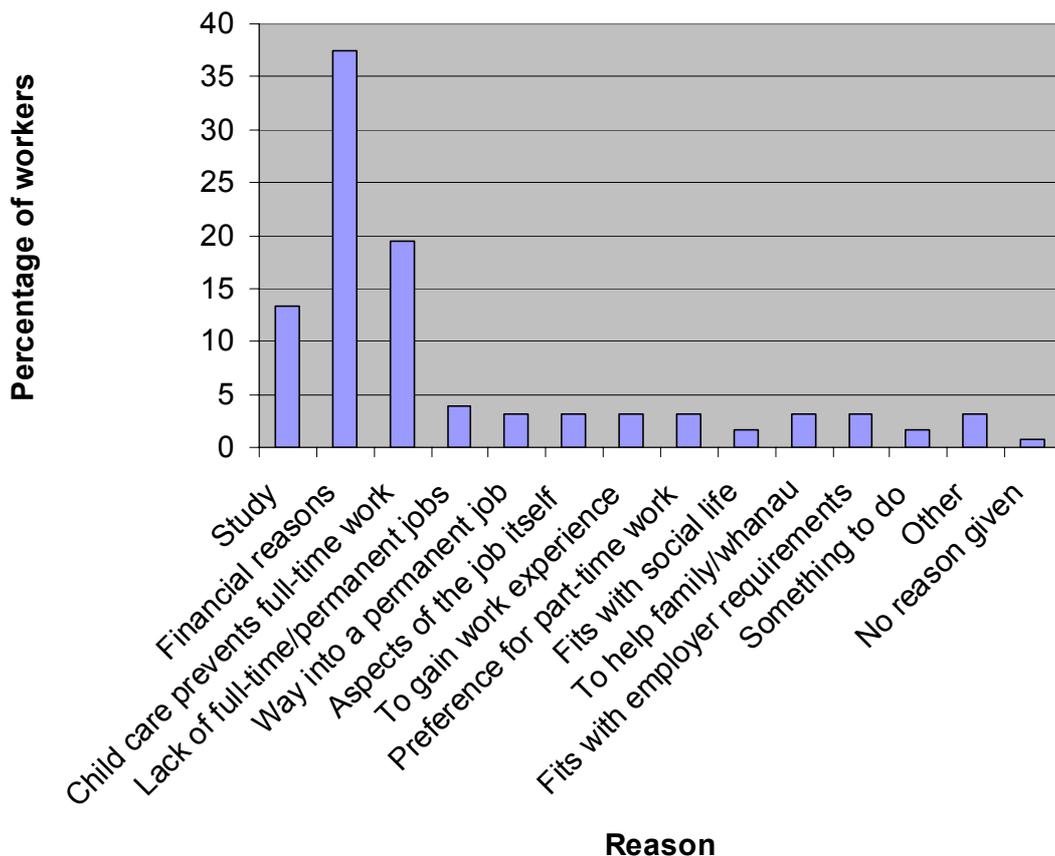
Figure 9: Occupational Groups



Although the degree of permanent part-time work for all participants in this category is not as high as it is for the sub-group of 30-34 year old women, at 61 percent, it is nevertheless higher than might be expected given the age of these young(er) people. Of the 39 percent in temporary part-time employment, 24 (or 58.5 percent of temporary part-time employees) were in casual employment, 14 (34 percent) had a fixed-term contract, one had temporary agency employment and two were in seasonal work. Slightly over half of all those reporting part-time employment as their main activity said they would prefer to work full-time “if the right sort of job came along”. Looked at another way, however, it could be inferred that nearly one half of these participants were satisfied with their current part-time work arrangements.

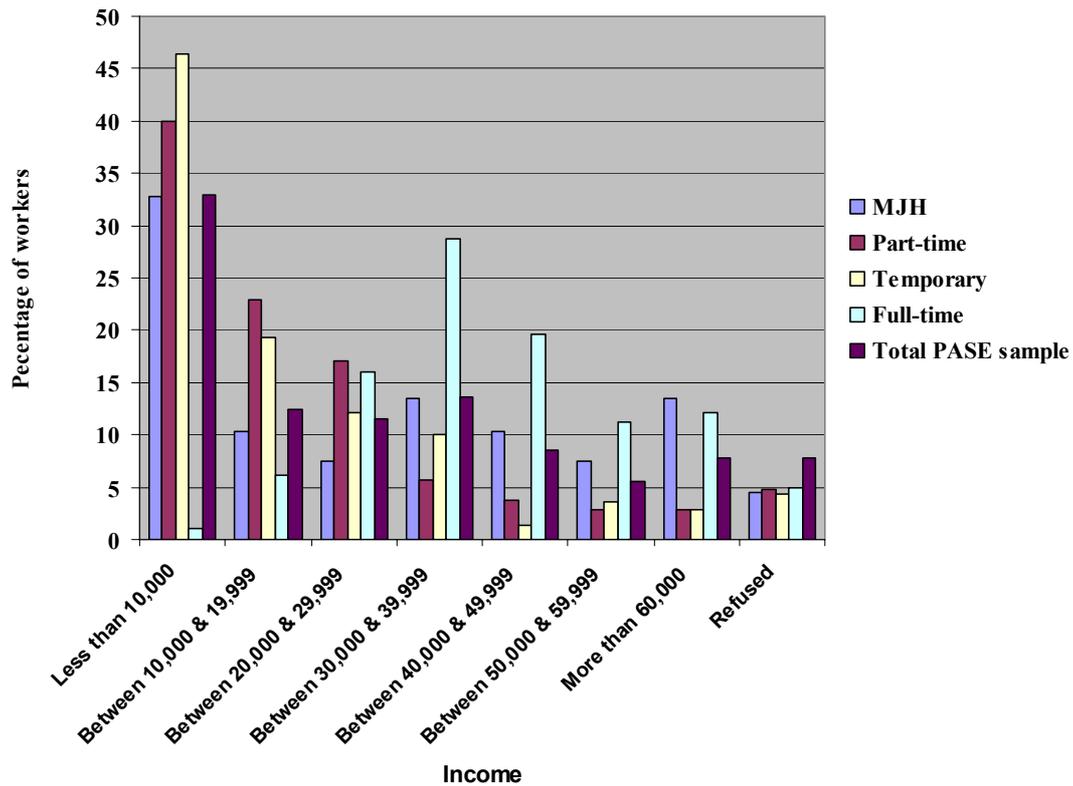
Participants were asked their reasons for working part-time. These are set out in Figure 10. While multiple responses were gathered, the three most common responses given were: financial reasons, in that they “needed the money” (38 percent); the need to fulfill childcare obligations (20 percent); and study (13 percent).

Figure 10: Reasons for Part-time Work



As expected, the reported gross annual incomes of participants in this group were significantly lower than for those who reported their main activity as full-time work or self-employment (see Figure 11). Nevertheless, just on one-quarter of these participants (26 percent) had a student loan, compared with 28 percent of full-time workers and 29 percent for the sample as a whole. Of the part-time workers with student loans, one third earned less than \$10,000 a year, while a further 37 percent earned between \$10,000 but less than \$20,000. In all, 85 percent of those with student loans earned less than \$30,000.

Figure 11: Annual Gross Income



Of the part-time workers, 43 percent had a child or children (compared with 25 percent for the entire sample) and just under one-third were living with a partner or spouse. Clearly, there will be members of this group who will be under considerable financial strain. Saying that, they held generally positive views of their employment and appeared ambitious for the future. A relatively high percentage (92 percent compared with 88 percent overall) indicated they would be in paid employment in two years time. Compared with the overall sample, a slightly higher percentage of this group also said they would be undertaking further study in two years time (72 percent compared with 70 percent). They also expressed a relatively high degree of satisfaction with their employment, with nearly 89 percent being either very or fairly satisfied and a further 4 percent neutral. Additionally, nearly 89 percent of part-time workers saw their current employment as very or fairly secure and 80 percent saw their future prospects in their employment in a positive way.

6. MULTIPLE JOB HOLDING: THE PASE SAMPLE

As noted in the introduction, any research work in New Zealand into multiple job holding is limited by the lack of robust official data in this area. While most recent Census data (2001) indicate that almost one in ten New Zealanders in the work force had more than one job, this is almost certainly an underestimate of the incidence of multiple job holding. The Census question on numbers of jobs was; ‘In the 7 days that ended on ..., did you have one job or more than one job?’. However there was no follow-up question for those who had more than one job. The information gathered from responses to this question is therefore limited in that while details are asked about the nature of the main job, no information is sought on the nature of the additional job or jobs, and if the second job or subsequent jobs were undertaken outside the period specified in the Census, they would not be recorded in Census statistics (Taylor, McClintock, Baines & Newell, 2004: 68-69; Taylor, Baines and Newell, 2004).

Although the Census data will be a relatively low estimate of the incidence of multiple job holding, it nevertheless establishes multiple job holding as a significant element of New Zealand working life and labour markets. In their detailed analysis of multiple job holding data from the 2001 Census, Taylor, Baines and Newell (2004) show that women are more likely to have more than one job, with 10.4 percent of working women holding more than one job compared with 9.1 percent of working men. Their analysis also shows that rural, land-based industries are the predominant sectors for multiple job holding, although entertainment, tertiary education and health services also feature as industry sectors with high rates of multiple job holding. The incidence of multiple job holding by geographical area highlights the extent to which multiple job holding is a more rural phenomenon. In rural areas, 20.2 percent of workers are multiple job holders, decreasing to 11.5 percent in rural centres. The percentage of multiple job holding in minor urban areas is 8.9 percent, decreasing to 8.6 percent in secondary urban areas and 7.9 percent in main urban areas.

As Figure 12 indicates, the multiple job holders in the PASE sample cover a range of main activity categories. While at 67 participants, the number of multiple job holders in the sample is relatively small, the incidence of multiple job holding, at 10.2 percent of those in paid employment, is very similar to the ‘estimates’ derived from Census data. As previously noted, the broader New Zealand data indicate that multiple job holding occurs more frequently in rural areas and less frequently in urban areas. In the PASE sample, the incidence of multiple job holding in Auckland is considerably lower than expected and higher in the other three areas (although the other three areas are also largely urban).

The PASE sample is also similar to the broader New Zealand data in that there is a preponderance of women, with nearly 63 percent of the 67 multiple job holders being women. Figure 13 provides a breakdown of the data by age and gender which shows just over one-quarter of multiple job holders in the 15-19 age cohort, a slightly higher incidence (28 percent) in the 20 to 24 age cohort, only about 12 percent in the 25-29 cohort and an increase to more than one third (34 percent) in the 30-34 age group. As in part-time work, the single largest category of multiple job holders is 30-34 year old women.

Figure 12: Multiple Job Holding by Main Activity

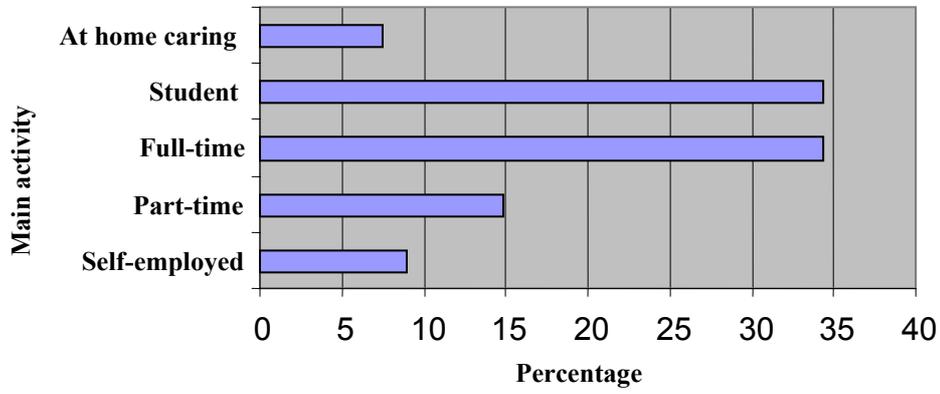
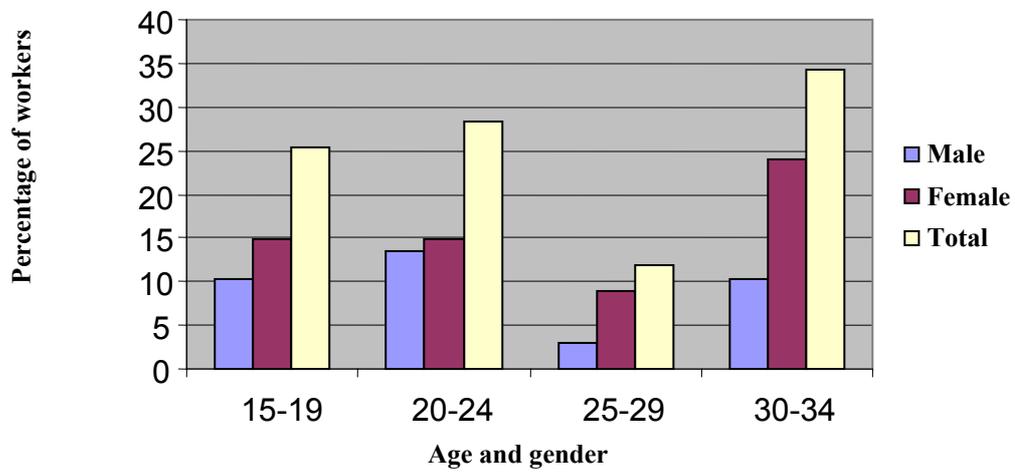
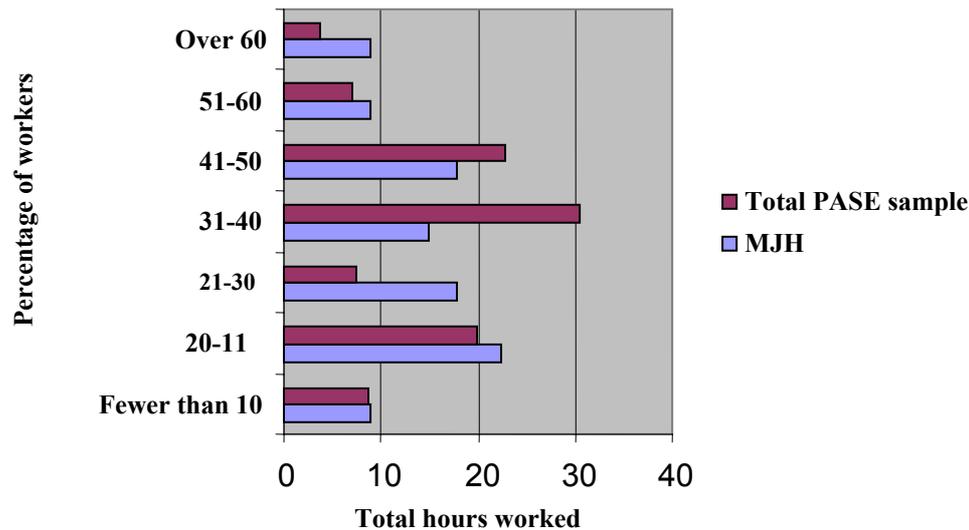


Figure 13: Multiple Job Holding by Age and Gender



Most multiple job holders had two jobs with 10 participants (15 percent of all multiple job holders) having 3 or 4 jobs. The hours worked by multiple job holders are shown in Figure 14.

Figure 14: Hours Worked by Multiple Job Holders



Similar to part-time workers, the primary reason given for working more than one job was that participants “needed the money”. Figure 11 shows the gross annual income of the 64 participants who answered the income question. Over half the multiple job holders were undertaking some form of study. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that nearly 39 percent of multiple job holders had a student loan, a much higher proportion than for part-time and full-time workers and the sample as a whole. Interestingly, nearly 72 percent of multiple job holders indicated that they would be engaged in further study in two years time.

While the ‘main occupations’ of multiple job holders were in a range of industries, over half were employed in; education; accommodation, cafes and restaurants; and the retail trade (see Figure 9). Salesperson/demonstrator and housekeeping/restaurant services were the two most common occupations reported. With respect to occupational group, 65 percent came from only two occupational groups: sales and service, and clerks. Again, these occupations and industries tend to be gendered with a female dominated labour force.

Compared with part-time workers, a higher percentage of multiple job holders said their ‘main job’ was permanent (73 percent compared with 61 percent of part-time workers). For those multiple job holders whose main job was temporary, casual and fixed-term contract employment predominated, with only one participant in each of the temporary agency and seasonal employment categories. While the vast majority of full-time workers in our study (97 percent) preferred permanent employment, this proportion dropped to three-quarters for the multiple job holders. When referring to

their main occupation, more than 35 percent said they chose this occupation because of the intrinsic nature of the work. Multiple job holders also differed from all workers in our study in terms of their employment history. While approximately one-third of all workers had had eight or more jobs over their employment history, just over half of the multiple job holders had had that many jobs.

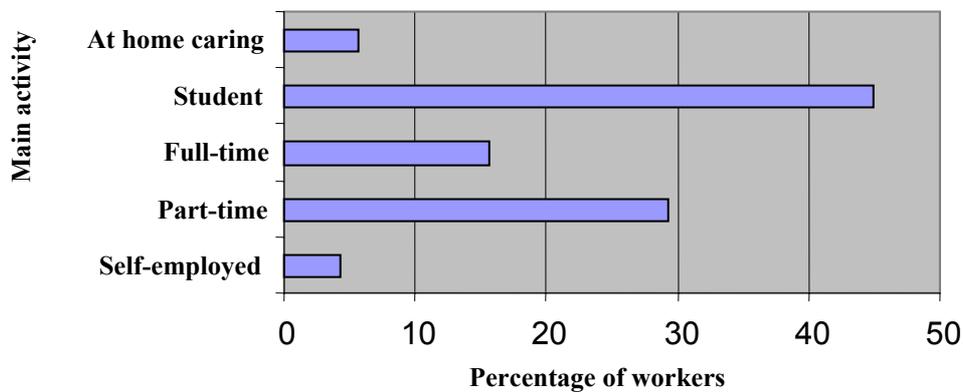
Of the multiple job holders in our study, 61 percent said they had received job training. Again following the general pattern of responses from all workers to this question, an overwhelming proportion of multiple job holders who responded (95 percent) rated their job training as either very satisfactory or fairly satisfactory.

All those in paid employment were asked how closely their current work was related to their qualifications. For their current employment, around half of the participants reported either a very close or fairly close relationship. A slightly lower proportion (48 percent) of multiple job holders answered similarly with respect to their first job. However, the question was not repeated for each of their jobs outside their 'main occupation'. Again this group of multiple job holders appeared to be quite satisfied with their current employment, with more than four-fifths saying they were either very satisfied or fairly satisfied. A related question to do with perception of job security showed that nearly 84 percent felt either very secure or fairly secure in their current employment.

7. TEMPORARY WORK: THE PASE SAMPLE

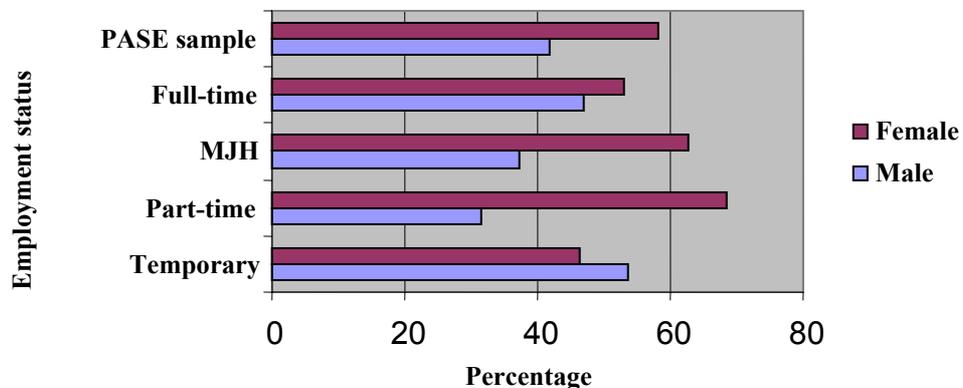
In a similar way that multiple job holders covered a range of ‘main activities’, so too did the 140 participants who were in temporary work. However as Figure 15 indicates, nearly three-quarters of temporary workers described their main activity as either studying or part-time work.

Figure 15: Temporary Workers by 'Main Activity'



An obvious feature of temporary employees in the sample was the different gender composition of this group from the sample as a whole (see Figure 16). While the gender break-down of the full sample was 58 percent female and 42 percent male, the proportion of male temporary workers was higher than that of female temporary workers (53.6 percent compared with 46.4 percent).

Figure 16: Temporary Workers by Gender by Employment Status



A significant proportion of temporary workers (45.7 percent) were in the youngest age cohort (15-19 years), while only 30 percent of temporary workers were in the two oldest cohorts of 25-34 year olds (see Figure 17).

Figure 17: Employment Status by Age

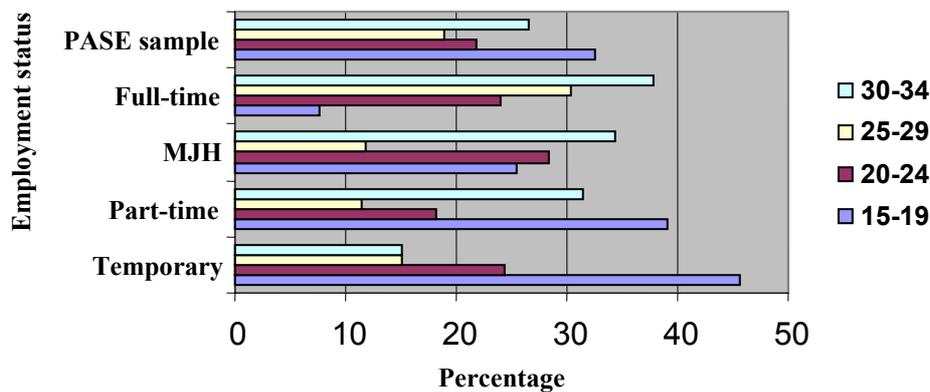


Figure 18 shows the ethnic break-down of temporary workers. Compared with the sample as a whole, the ethnic data for temporary workers indicate a greater proportion of both East and South Asian people than might have been expected (see Figure 18). It should be noted too that only eight participants were included in the Maori/Pacific Peoples category, which could well explain the high proportion of temporary workers in this group.

The nature of the temporary work is shown in Figure 19 where 57 percent of temporary workers (80 workers in all) were in casual work and 42 (30 percent of all temporary workers) were on a fixed-term contract. The remainder who answered the question were employed in seasonal work. When asked about their preferences for either permanent or temporary work, the majority of temporary workers (55 percent) said they preferred temporary work (see Figure 20). However, 81.2 percent of temporary workers working full-time would prefer permanent employment.

Figure 18: Permanent or Temporary Employment Status by Ethnicity

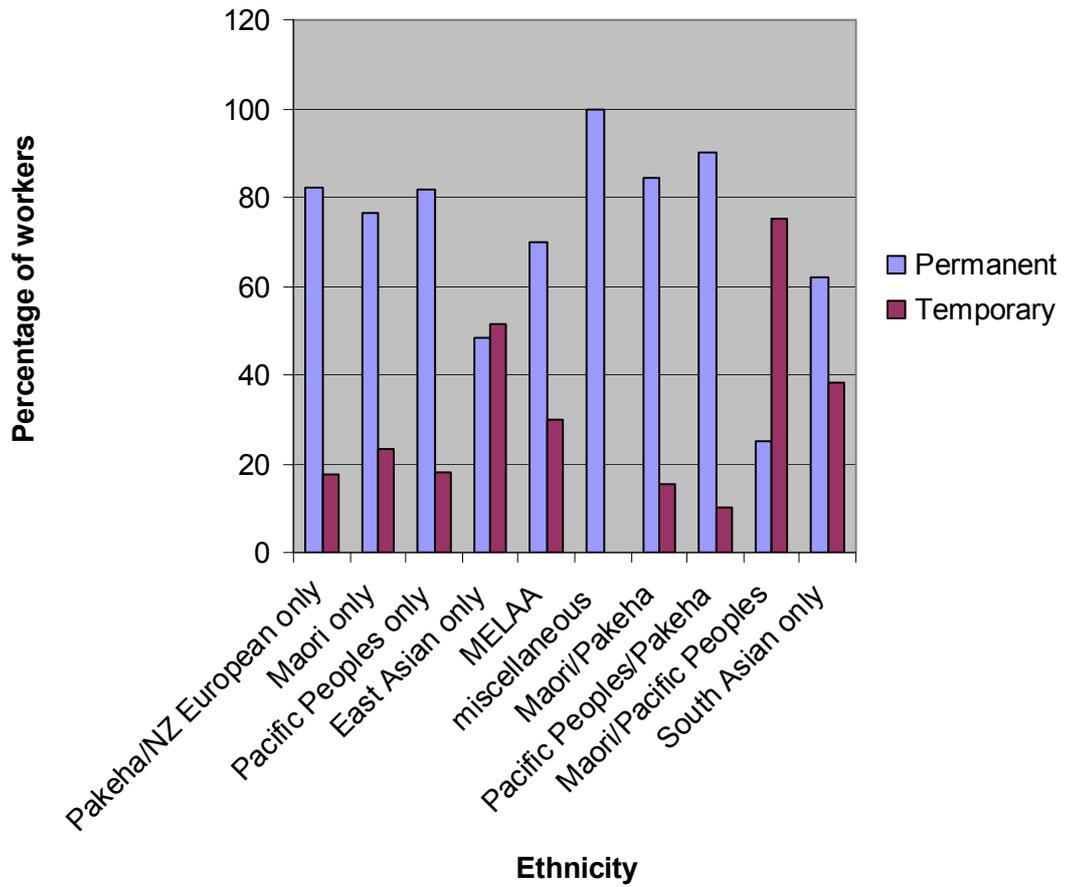


Figure 19: Type of Temporary Employment

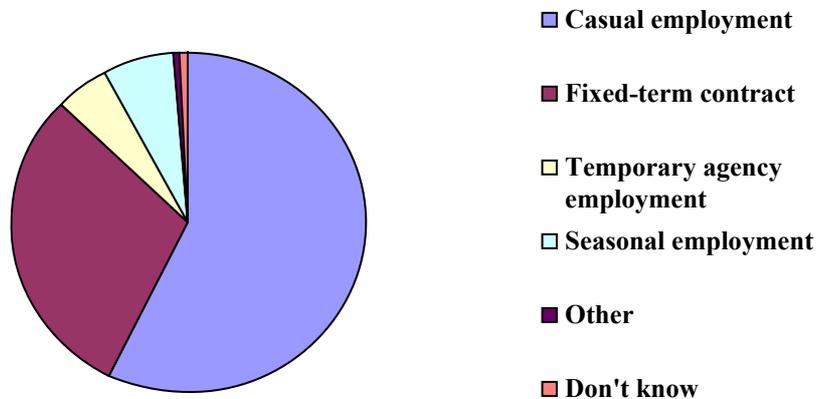
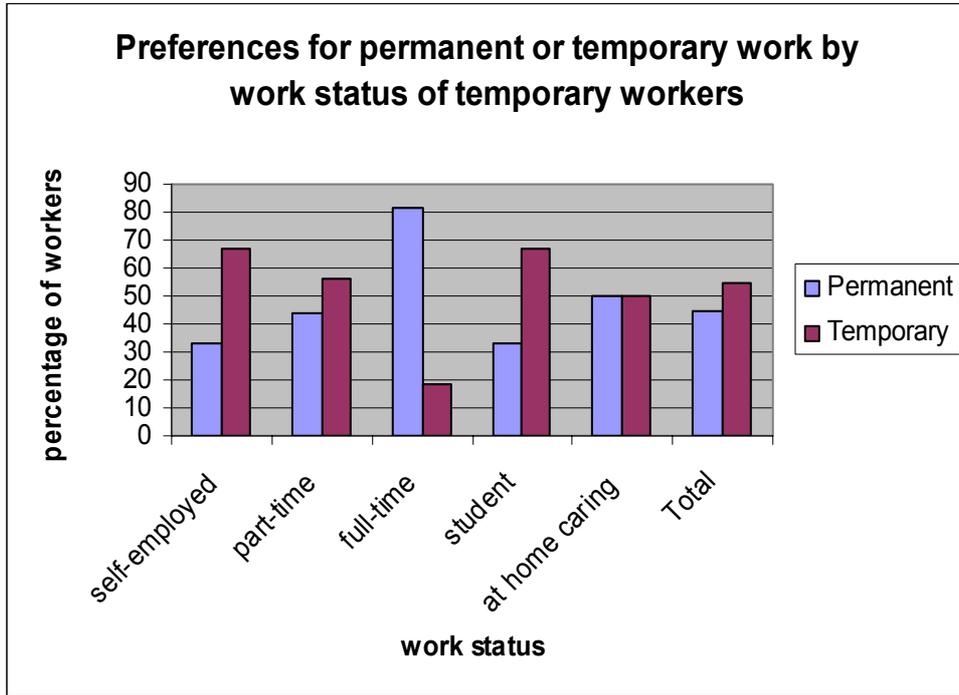
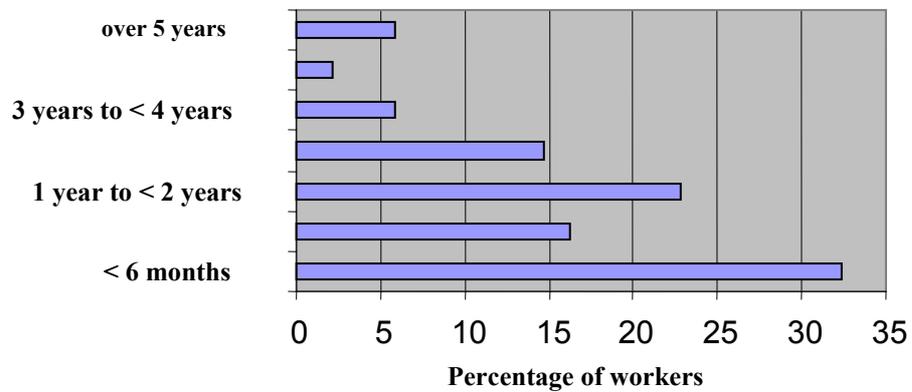


Figure 20: Preferences for Permanent or Temporary Work by Work Status of Temporary Workers



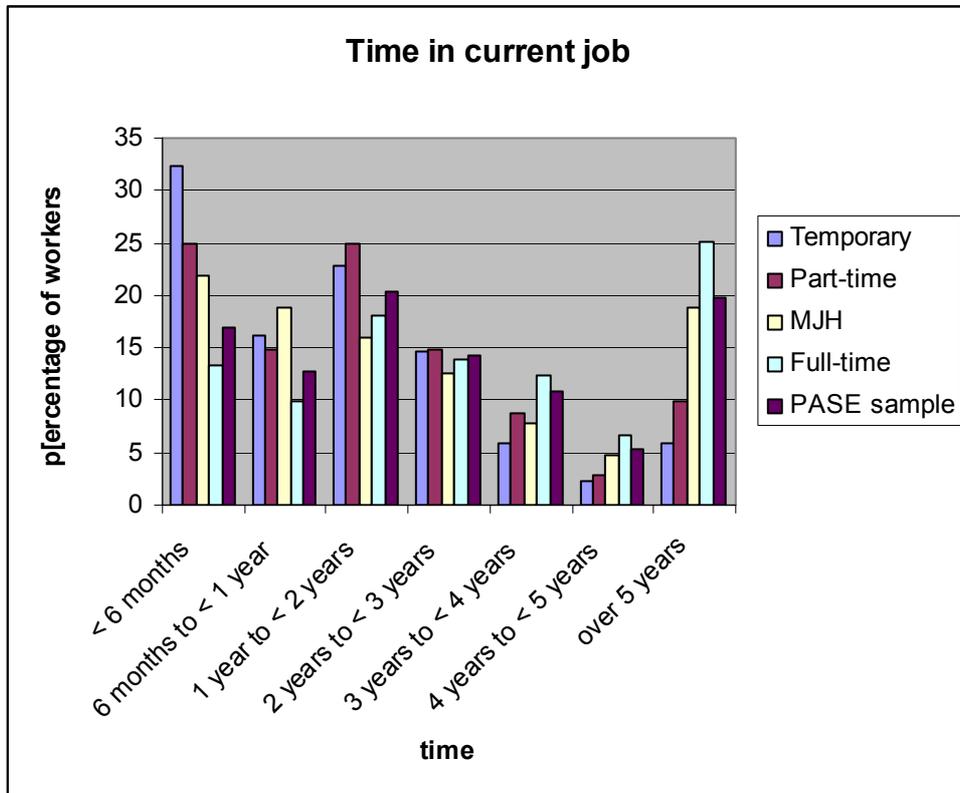
A surprising feature with respect to this group is the length of time they had been in their current employment, with just over one-half being in their employment for more than one year (see Figure 21).

Figure 21: Time in Current Employment: Temporary Workers



Nevertheless, as Figure 22 indicates, temporary workers tend to have spent less time in their current employment than either full-time or part-time workers. This factor could be explained, however, by the relative youth of the temporary workers in the sample.

Figure 22: Time in Current Job (PASE Sample)



Two-thirds of temporary workers would be categorised as part-time workers in that they worked for fewer than 30 hours per week. Approximately 13 percent of temporary workers were also multiple job holders.

Over half of the temporary workers had received job training from their employer and approximately 90 percent of those who had received training described it as either very satisfactory or fairly satisfactory. Over three-fifths of temporary workers also reported that their current job was either not very closely related or not related at all to their qualifications. As with the other workers in the sample, there was a high level of satisfaction with their current job with 89 percent of temporary workers saying they were either very satisfied or fairly satisfied with their current employment. When asked about job security, 75 percent of temporary workers felt their job was either very secure or fairly secure and, in a similar vein, 76 percent saw their prospects in the job as either good or average.

CONCLUSION

Non-standard work is a growing feature of all labour markets. There is much debate within the literature on non-standard work around how best to define this phenomenon and how it should be measured. Such debate is not simply an idle intellectual exercise. There are very real consequences for workers, employers and the general functioning of labour markets if it is not well defined and if its incidence is either inadequately measured or overlooked altogether. New Zealand has a poor record of recognising and enumerating non-standard work.

This report draws on numerical data from New Zealand's Labour Market Dynamics Research Programme. It uses Statistics New Zealand data that have been reworked specifically for the project to demonstrate some general trends in the incidence and growth of non-standard work in New Zealand. It also reports on aspects of non-standard work as it occurred in a sample of 966 young(er) people aged between 15 and 34 years in four geographical areas of New Zealand. The categories of part-time work, multiple job holding and temporary work discussed in this report should not be considered as discrete, as obviously individual research participants could fall within two or even all three of these categories.

The group of part-time workers discussed in the report were those who described part-time work as their main activity. In both the New Zealand data and the PASE sample, women predominated in this category. In the PASE sample, the largest occupational group for part-time workers was sales and services. A similar profile pertained to multiple job holders where women predominated and sales and services and clerks were the dominant occupational group. By contrast, males and young workers (15-19 year olds) were predominant in the area of temporary work. Whereas the gender breakdown of the full sample was 58 percent female and 42 percent male, the proportion of males in temporary employment (53.5 percent) was higher than that of female temporary workers (46.4 percent).

There is considerable debate regarding the implications of having an increased proportion of the work force employed in non-standard ways. The data reported on here adds to our knowledge of the incidence of non-standard work in New Zealand and also adds to our understanding of the attitudes held by young(er) non-standard workers to their employment situations.

A key feature of the LMD research is the extent to which the sample of non-standard workers reported positive attitudes and experiences regarding their employment. Workers in all three categories expressed relatively high degrees of satisfaction with their current employment and for those who had received on-the-job training, similarly high degrees of satisfaction were expressed. With respect to job security, part-time and multiple job holders saw their employment as more secure than did temporary workers (89 and 84 percent compared with 75 percent for temporary workers). Similarly, temporary workers saw their future prospects in their employment somewhat less positively than did multiple job holders and part-time workers (with 76 percent of temporary workers seeing their future prospects in their current job positively, compared with 80 percent of part-time workers and 86 percent of multiple job holders). It is worth noting, however, that temporary workers who

were self-employed, working part-time or students preferred temporary to permanent work but 81.8 percent of those working full-time would prefer permanent work.

The PASE sample provides an interesting perspective on non-standard work in New Zealand, given that the sample includes people who, because of their youth, are moving between education and employment and on to different life stages. These movements are reflected in the variety of employment and educational relationships in which they are involved.

The analyses reported on here do not fully support the growing ‘orthodoxy’ with respect to the negative nature of non-standard work for young(er) people. In this study, aside from full-time workers with temporary employment contracts, non-standard work is a form that is well accepted by those working in this way and does not appear to inhibit either the prospects or ambitions of these workers to any great degree. Rather, non-standard work was incorporated into the lives of these workers as a way of dealing with the changing and increasingly dynamic nature of New Zealand’s labour market and the equally dynamic changes in the lives of young people as they negotiated employment pathways and the expectations of adult life that are very different from the linearity which characterised the employment and life expectations of their parents’ generations.

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